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ABSTRACT

Words such as aims, goals, objectives, requirements, and outcomes have been used to define the role of education. As evident in the work of Dewey (1916), Walker and Soltis (1986), Sizer (1984), Goodlad (1984), Boyer (1983), Mager (1970), and Spady (1989), these terms are fuzzy and ill-defined. Throughout history, educators have identified various goals for education: prepare students for life, prepare an elite group of students for entry into higher education, prepare youth for social change, and ensure national purpose. As a result of the National Commission on Excellence in Education report, "A Nation at Risk" (1983), most educators are taking a closer look at the goals of the education system. Sizer suggests two separate purposes: education of the intellect and education in character. Goodlad divides goals into academic, vocational, social and civic, and personal. Walker and Soltis identify three basic educational aims: cultivate knowledge, sustain and improve society, and foster individuals' well-being. Developers of aims for education should keep in mind Honig's (1988) observation that consideration of the three identities of each individual--worker, citizen, and private person--points the way to what school should accomplish and Barth's (1990) strong recommendation that each teacher and principal develop a unique personal vision. Because of a conflict between the rational scientific method and political method currently used, Walker and Soltis (1986) recommend participative social planning for development of goals. (Contains 20 references.) (YLB)

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LEARNER OUTCOMES: PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

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LEARNER OUTCOMES: PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

This report, prepared in three parts, gives students, parents, educators, legislators, business people, and the citizenship in general, an opportunity to gain insight into the role of education as defined by the aims, goals, objectives, and outcomes identified by educators and educational researchers in and out of the educational community.

Throughout the literature, terms like *aims, goals, objectives, requirements,* and *outcomes have* been used without clearly defining their meanings. The first part of this report provides definitions for those terms, and it allows the reader to develop a feeling for how those terms are used in the literature.

An examination of the work of educational researchers supplies an extensive inventory of past and current educational aims, goals, objectives, requirements, and outcomes. The second part of this report contains a discussion of that inventory. The third part of this report provides some direction for students, parents, educators, legislators, business people, and citizens as they struggle to identify the outcomes of education in their schools or communities.

Defining Aims, Goals, Objectives, Requirements, and Outcomes

Historically, words such as aims, *goals, objectives, requirements,* and *outcomes* have been used to define the role of education either from an input or outcome perspective or as a means-end process. Terms using an input perspective, such as *requirements,* define what the student should be taught. Terms using an outcome perspective, such as *outcomes* and *objectives,* require demonstration by students, and terms using a means-end process such as *aims* and *goals,* point the way, which, in some cases, may never be reached. Sometimes authors and researchers use a specific word or phrase to identify a single concept, as Spady (1989) does in his literature on *exit outcomes of significance* (p. 16); sometimes the terms are used interchangeably, almost generically, without any uniqueness. This report will introduce a variety of uses for terms, and in defining those terms, this section also will analyze the impact of those terms on the purveyors of education. The definitions and analysis will be gleaned from materials prepared by Dewey

(1916), Walker and Soltis (1986), Sizer (1984), Goodlad (1984), Boyer (1983), Mager (1970), and Spady (1989).

John Dewey, (1916), thoroughly discussed the term *aim* as he believed it should apply to education. He said, "Our first question is to define the nature of an aim so far as it falls within an activity, instead of being furnished without" (p. 101). He then carefully demonstrated the connection between *aims* and *ends* as he contrasted them with *results*. According to Dewey, results arise from a state of affairs but are not necessarily the desired state. An *end* requires a *beginning* and an intervention that is a "process of transformation and realization" (p. 101). Dewey defines *ends* as true "terminations or completions of what has proceeded" (p. 101) and believes *aims* implies an orderly and ordered activity leading to a foreseen end. Dewey, in fact, established several criteria for good aims including: (a) they "must be an outgrowth of existing conditions" (p. 104), (b) they set a mark in advance that directs the activity, and (c) they are a means of directing the activity. Dewey recognized that an aim must be flexible and is, in fact, "experiential, and, hence, constantly growing as it is tested in action" (p. 105).

Years later, Walker and Soltis (1986), apparently influenced by Dewey's explanation, prepared their own definition for the term *educational aims*. They defined *educational aims* as "desirable states for individuals and societies that seem approachable or achievable through education" (p. 2). They stated that aims which guide and motivate educators may be remote and intangible or immediate and accessible. Aims, as discussed by Walker and Soltis, are not necessarily fully attainable. They do, however, according to the authors, "serve as inspirational visions of the Good and stress the role of education in the human quest of the *Good Life*" (p. 4).

In contrast to aims, which may simply point the way, other authors believe *achievable* goals for education must be identified. One such author, Robert Mager (1962), apparently influenced by behaviorist psychology, thought schools should identify specific, achievable goals and objectives for the students. Mager's *instructional objectives*, which show cause-effect relationships, are an example of achievable goals. "The student will demonstrate" is the recommended introductory phrase for each objective. The writer of the objective must explain *what* students will achieve and *how* they will demonstrate that achievement.

Spady's learner outcomes followed the same pattern as Mager's instructional objectives, and the term *learner outcome* may, in fact, be used somewhat interchangeably with *instructional objective*. Even though outcomes and objectives may be similar, Spady reminds us that outcome based education is more than instructional objectives. He defines it as a "comprehensive transformation approach" (p. 16) to education. However, like Mager, Spady believes the outcomes must be observable and measurable; students must demonstrate performance. The difference lies in the degree of specificity mandated by the outcome. Spady's exit outcomes are much broader than Mager's instructional objectives. Mager and Spady both believe it is extremely important that these objectives or outcomes be shared with students and that they guide the educational process.

Currently educational psychologists who are doing research in the cognitive science area identify the search for goals, aims, objectives, requirements, and outcomes as an ill-structured problem—one which does not have a single correct solution. In well-structured problems there are *correct* solutions. The *givens* of the problem are known and the constraints on solutions are also known. In ill-structured problems, both the problem representation and the solution are areas of potential disagreement. According to the following quote from Glover, Ronning & Bruning (1990), even historical interpretation of educational goals is an ill-structured problem:

> Recently, for example, a number of *revisionist* educational historians have attacked the widely held view that the American educational system was developed in the hope that an educated populace could more effectively govern itself. Some historians now argue, for instance, that the educational system was established to provide well-trained and docile workers for the American free-enterprise system. Surprisingly to some, perhaps, considerable documentation can be found to support both problem representations. (p. 361)

In addition to providing the above discussion about ill-structured problems, cognitive psychology has also provided research on expert/novice decision-making efforts involving ill-structured problems. This research leads to the belief that in education, as in other professional areas, those who have acquired a great deal of experience, (i.e., expertise) in a field would be the ones who could most readily identify the *best* answers (Glover, Ronning & Bruning). In this case, the best answer might be clear and unambiguous identification of aims and goals for education. However, as frequently happens when experts attempt to address an ill-defined problem, there is considerable difference of opinion. Even so, the expert/novice research has shown that expert opinion

considers more variables and results in more complex and complete decisions. This document shares educational goals identified by experts. These experts do not always agree. However, the list of goals they collectively have developed may help school districts make decisions as to the goals they wish to identify for their districts.

Although schools have identified many aims and/or objectives of education, these aims/objectives are frequently not followed by the teachers and principals. For an explanation of this phenomena, Sizer's comments on the rationale or goals of education in his book *Horace's Compromise* should be reviewed. Sizer doesn't believe school district goals necessarily have an impact on education within the district. Specifically, he reported:

> In good schools, the rationale is usually written out and made available for all to see, but few pay much attention to it, both because most curriculum statements are written in unspecific, and thus not very useful, language, and because there are few sanctions for not taking the schoolwide goals seriously. (p. 90)

Goodlad (1984) confirmed and expanded upon Sizer's concerns about the effectiveness of educational goals. In *A Place called School*, Goodlad reported:

> Comprehensive lists of goals are hard to find. Instead, one finds long lists of goals and objectives for the separate subject fields and, recently in many states and districts, lists of proficiencies students are to acquire for high school graduation or grade-to-grade promotion. (p. 50)

He also reported that there is "little evidence of goals consciously shared by the teachers and precious little dialogue about what their schools are for" (p. 50). Goodlad reviewed educational goals from historical data and state documents, synthesized those goals, and prepared a comprehensive listing of goals for education. That listing is available in the second part of this report.

Boyer (1983) agreed with Goodlad and Sizer and stated that "educational goals appear to be of only marginal concern" (p. 60). The vague goals found in many schools were ignored by teachers, principals, and students. He criticized the current structure and stated clearly, "a high school, to be effective, must have a clear and vital mission" (p. 301). He used the terms *vision* and *goals* interchangeably as can be seen in this summary quote, "What is needed, and what we believe these four goals constitute—is a clear and coherent

vision of what the nation's high schools should be seeking to accomplish" (p. 67). Along with Goodlad's research, Boyer's four goals are discussed in the second part of this report.

As evident in the previous discussion, the terms that define the role or purposes of education are fuzzy and, perhaps, ill-defined. However, the search for goals for education apparently is useful and continues. The next section of this report provides a discussion about the goals for education as identified by educators and educational researchers.

Identifying Aims, Goals, Objectives, Requirements, and Outcomes

Throughout history educators have been concerned about identifying the goals for education. Even early educational philosophies, as established by the Greeks, identified, according to Dewey aims for education. This section of the report is divided into two parts. The first part discusses goals of education in the United States before 1983. In 1983, a challenging report entitled *A Nation at Risk* (1983) demanded that goals for education be revisited. The second part of this report discusses goals of education as identified in the literature after the 1983 report.

Goals of Education Before *A Nation At Risk*

In the United States one of the first comprehensive lists of goals for the high school can be ascertained from the material prepared by a committee established by the National Education Association in 1893—identified as The Committee of Ten (according to Boyer). They recommended the high school curriculum include English, mathematics, history, the sciences, Latin and other foreign languages—a strict academic curriculum that uses a requirement or input philosophy. Their goal was to prepare students for life, and the way they did that was to identify what students should be taught, (i.e., inputs). They believed that there "was no substantial difference between education for college and education for work" (p. 49). All subjects were to be taught to all students.

In 1913, approximately twenty years after the Committee of Ten prepared its report, another committee met to review the goals of education. This group, again appointed by the National Education Association, known as the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education identified the seven Cardinal Principles (according to Boyer). According to the Commission, the Cardinal Principles were the "main objectives of

education." The Commission, through its work, recognized that objectives could and must be acquired through multiple subject areas. However, the commission believed subject areas must be reorganized so they could contribute to the achievement of the objectives. The Commission identified the following Cardinal Principles or main objectives of education: (a) health, (b) command of fundamental processes (i.e., reading, writing, arithmetic, and oral and written expression), (c) worthy home membership, (d) vocation, (e) citizenship, (f) worthy use of leisure time, and (g) ethical character.

John Dewey's discussion on what he called the aims of education is especially interesting in light of the fact that previous groups of educators had been studiously attempting to identify specific goals or objectives of education. Dewey stated that it is futile to identify one aim of education. There may be several general aims of education, "all consistent with one another" (p. 111). The aims of education, according to Dewey change with the "needs of the contemporary situation. . ." (p. 111). He believed that "a given generation tends to emphasize in its conscious projections just the things which it has least of in actual fact" (p. 112). Consequently, aims of education would change as the needs of society change. Dewey identified the following three general aims of education: (a) natural development that focuses on health, vigor, physical mobility, and differences between people; (b) social efficiency that translates into industrial competence and good citizenship; and (c) culture that includes "appreciation of ideas and art and broad human interests" (p. 121). It is interesting to note that Dewey believed aims, partially stated, "come in conflict with one another" (p. 123), and only when they are integrated, are they consistent with one another.

Early in the development of the high school, and for that reason perhaps most influential in its continuing purpose and organization, the purpose of the high school was to prepare a relatively small elite group of students for efficient entry into higher education. Through the 1950s, a major purpose of several of the national study commissions was to review ways to better articulate the relationship between high school and college with the high school assumed to be the institution in need of change. While the purpose of preparing a select group of students for college comes under criticism, it always seems to remain a very high priority in the discussion and recommendations concerning purpose of the high school. Early in the high school development (1890s), the issue of preparation for college was handled by recommending that the high school focus on preparation for life; however, the best preparation for life was assumed to be the best preparation for college—

this was when high schools serviced a very select group of students. Later as the high school needed to serve a much larger group of students (some not so oriented or endowed with ability for intellectual scholarship), and as the need for a trained labor force increased, the overall purpose remained preparation for life but within this broad mission statement, the purpose was differentiated to provide some advanced general or common education and also either prepare students for college or for immediate entry to work.

In the 1930s the issue of education's role in social reconstruction was especially debated. Resolution seemed to be that education should play a role in preparing the young for social change but appropriately should leave reconstruction to the later democratic process. Also starting during this time was concern for assuring equal education opportunity in the purpose of public education. Each generation was to have a fair and fresh start in the competition for benefits of our society. Schools were to play a major role in the reshuffling process and later in the 1960s with actually compensating for earlier educational deprivations for certain groups.

In the 1950s with the advent of the Cold War and Sputnik, education was recognized for its role in assuring national purpose—national defense and technical superiority. The federal government began to take more initiative (particularly as evidence in federal expenditures) in curriculum reform, especially as it related to mathematics and science. In the 1960s, federal interest turned to the role of education in the War on Poverty. The purpose of education at this time was becoming all encompassing—the criticism soon became that education was aimless and not doing a very good job of anything. It was suggested that the high school begin to restrict its purpose as a means to focus energy and resources and thereby demonstrate effects.

These early reflections on the goals of education indicated that throughout U.S. history it has been important to identify and establish goals, objectives, aims, and purposes for the educational system. That need is as great today as it ever was. In fact, as a result of a critical 1983 report on education entitled *A Nation at Risk*, most educators are taking a closer look at the current goals of the education system. This report, prepared by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), found that students in the United States were not doing as well as their predecessors or as well as comparable students from other nations. Consequently, as a result of the report and many others which followed, educators are under even more pressure to review the goals of education.

The Commission introduced its report as follows:

> Our nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world. . . the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people. . . . If an unfriendly power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act of war. . . We have been committing an act of unthinking, unilateral educational disarmament. Our society and its educational institutions seem to have lost sight of the basic purposes of schooling, and of the high expectations and disciplined effort needed to attain them. (pp. 5-6)

The Commission recommended a renewed commitment to excellence in education, which means individuals performing at the boundaries of their abilities and schools setting high expectations. However, the Commission believed that commitment to excellence did not have to be at the expense of a strong commitment to the equitable treatment of diverse populations, "The twin goals of equity and high-quality schooling have profound and practical meaning for our economy and society, and we cannot permit one to yield to the other either in principle or in practice" (p. 13).

Findings and recommendations of the Commission were categorized in the areas of content, expectations, time, and teaching. One of the Commission's findings was that secondary school curriculums have "homogenized, diluted, and diffused to the point that they no longer have a central purpose." In effect, there was a cafeteria-style curriculum in which the appetizers and desserts could easily be mistaken for the main courses. Recommendations of the Commission addressed the following: (a) strengthening of high school graduation requirements (particularly five *new* basics—English, mathematics, science, social studies, and computer science; foreign language for college bound); (b) raising of expectations for academic performance and conduct in schools and admission standards for college, (c) spending more time on new basics (e.g., more effective use of school day, larger school day, lengthened school year), (d) improving preparation of teachers and make teaching a more rewarding and respected profession (e.g., increase salaries, longer contracts, provision for master teachers), (e) holding educators and elected officials responsible for these changes and encouraging citizens to provide fiscal support and stability to bring about these changes.

Currently, educators are being challenged to provide the direction necessary for improving the educational system in the United States. Since 1983, many educational researchers have attempted to address the challenge before them. These researchers have studied the educational system and prepared reports based on those studies. Summaries of some of those reports are included in the next section of this report.

Goals of Education after *A Nation at Risk*

This section contains summaries of educational goals, outcomes, purposes, aims, and objectives as identified by educational researchers who have recently studied or evaluated the American educational system. The goals range from very specific objectives to very general aims. The goals of the different authors may compliment or contradict one another. They may make recommendations for an improved educational system or they may simply be reporting on the current state of the education. The purpose of this section is not to judge the quality or the value of the goals, outcomes, aims, and objectives, but is, instead, simply to provide a composite listing of the goals that are currently being discussed. This discussion will attempt to highlight some of the more recent research about American schools.

The first of the reports to be discussed was prepared by Theodore Sizer (1984). Sizer's *Horace's Compromise*, one of a series of three reports based on visits to high schools throughout the United States, presented an interesting, if somewhat critical, view of educational systems. Sizer recommended that late-twentieth century schools needed to have a "more appropriate purpose than a warmed-over version of principles promulgated in 1918" (p. 84). His comments indicated that modern schools should have two separate purposes: (a) education of the intellect, and (b) an education in character. Although he questioned how much of learning could be mandated by the state, he felt that there were some essential claims that the state could make on its citizens.

Education of the intellect, according to Sizer, could be defended in the following manner, "the essential claims in education are very elementary: literacy, numeracy and civic understanding" (p. 86). His definitions for each of those three areas encompassed many ideas and concepts. First of all, his definition of literacy "means more than decoding words" (p. 86). It means the ability to comprehend and to understand ideas and arguments, the ability to read easily and comprehend basic arguments, and the ability to present arguments orally and in clear writing. He defined the second area, numeracy, as

the ability to use numbers, arithmetically and algebraically, as well as understand concepts, relationships, and logic. Finally, civic understanding included a "grasp of the basis for consensual democratic government, a respect for its processes, and acceptance of the restraints and obligations incumbent on a citizen" (p. 86). Sizer believed that these *three desiderata* provide the "essential context for responsible citizenship and government" (p. 86). Additional claims by the government, he believed, did not have much merit. For example, he stated, "the state has no right to insist that I be employable" (p. 86), "the state has no right or obligation to tell me how to spend my leisure time" (p. 87), and the "state has no claims whatsoever on my beliefs or character" (p. 87). He did, however, believe that the state could "assist me, if I wish, to become employable, to enjoy culture and leisure, and to develop myself fully" (p. 87). High school, according to Sizer, should be an "opportunity, not an obligation" (p. 88).

Sizer's second purpose for education-education of the character-required that "any school of integrity, public or private, secular or religious, try to help its students become decent people" (p. 121). Sizer used the term *decency* to encompass fairness, generosity, and tolerance. Even though he defended this purpose of education, he admitted that "it is difficult to find schools today that both formally articulate decency as an aim and precisely outline how the students can achieve it" (p. 121).

In 1985, the second in the series of three books dedicated to the review of the U.S. educational system, *The Shopping Mall High School* (Powell, Farrar, Cohen, 1985), followed *Horace's Compromise*. The book's name was chosen to reflect the diversity of curriculum found in the high school. The authors believed that the following two, somewhat contradictory, realities drive the system and have created a *shopping mall* within the high school: (a) high schools should be "genuinely accessible to virtually everyone" (p. 65), and (b) everyone should graduate from high school. The authors stated, apparently tongue in cheek, that the current high school horizontal curriculum, developed as a result of the above goals, is "one of the genuine wonders of educational history, a triumph of production skills, marketing techniques, and consumption values no less dramatic than the abundance of product lines available in shopping malls" (p. 13). They believed that the abundance of course offerings and the fact that the schools were neutral about academic mastery reflected a neutrality in goals for education.

The current shopping mall high school, according to the authors, is not working. The authors believed that in this high school learning is voluntary. Students who wanted to learn could; students who didn't want to learn, could avoid it. They believed teachers operated under unspoken contracts or treaties with many students. The treaties provided an acceptable situation—one that didn't unduly challenge either the teacher or the student. Finally, the authors talked about the *unspecial student*. The one who is average, without special needs or abilities. They believed that the shopping mall high school was doing the unspecial student a disservice by not making her/him feel special.

The authors believed that there are "three major areas for renegotiation—purpose, push, and personalization" (p. 316). According to the authors, if teachers talked more with one another, they could "discuss curriculum in its proper context: what students should know and be able to do at the end of high school, not everyone to the same extent, but everyone in the same direction" (p. 320). In addition, they believed that the *life skills* high schools can teach—"speaking cogently, writing clearly, reading with understanding, listening with empathy, having facility with numbers, and solving problems" (p. 320)—could be taught in many educational domains. Essential ingredients for high schools, according to the authors, included focused educational purpose, the existence of push for students to achieve, and personalization which required knowing the students.

In 1986, the last of the three books published as a result of A Study of High Schools was published. *The Last Little Citadel,* by Hampel (1986) traced the history of American schools from 1940 to 1984. He discussed the NEA Committee of Ten work in 1893 and compared it to schools of later years. The *Foreword,* written by Theodore Sizer, states that "the pattern of a core of 'mainline subjects' has, at least in its overall structure, withstood decades of potential erosion to an astonishing extent" (p. x). Any changes that have occurred happened slowly and have been primarily a reflection of changes in society. Hampel believed that any major "redirection of secondary education will be hard to achieve" (p. 153).

The goals of education have changed little over the last forty years. To provide a short history of the goals, purposes, and trends of education, Hampel reported on these historical highlights which occurred between 1940 and 1980:

1. In 1944, a 400-page plan prepared by a commission of educational theorists identified "widely shared beliefs" (p. 37) about education. The report, assuming the students had a variety of needs, indicated that schools should provide academic and occupational preparation, as well as ethical sensibility, patriotism and self-awareness. According to the authors of the report, these skills and attitudes would help students more than "Latin declensions and botanical esoterica" (p. 35). Traditional classes were to teach skills and vocational classes would teach specialties. The common learnings for all students would include English, economics, civics, and aesthetics.

2. In 1947, the Commission on Life Adjustment for Youth was established by the federal Office of Education. Charles Prosser, chief spokesperson for the commission, believed that the academic areas studied in schools did not prepare students for life. The Life Adjusters claimed all students needed to study topics like effective living, family life and personal relations. The Life Adjusters movement lasted until about the middle of the 1950's.

3. In 1959, James B. Conant, author of *The American High School Today,* wrote that "in 'all but a few' schools, the sharpest were not working hard enough'" (p. 59). He made many recommendations for school improvement including grouping students by ability with the top 15% preparing for college and the remainder receiving vocational training. Conant wanted vocational education to be a part of a comprehensive high school, not a separate school.

4. Permissiveness and social unrest, characteristic of the late 1960s, created conditions for the development of responsive, flexible and unprejudiced school philosophies in the early 1970's. Hampel reported that in 1965 "development of positive self-concept and good human relations" was "seventh of eight educational goals; by 1977, that same objective was second of ten" (p. 137). Less regimentation and more choice were characteristic of the comprehensive high school. Young people were treated like adults. Liberal philosophies prevailed and the concept of equality was taken seriously.

5. In the 1980s, however, the educational system was severely criticized. SAT scores were declining, students from other nations were doing better on international tests,

the United States. was having a difficult time competing in a world market. *A Nation at Risk,* demanded educational reform. Other reports followed. Hampel reported that a "get tough tone" prevailed and "longer school days, longer school years, more homework, fewer electives, stiffer graduation requirements, and higher college entrance standards led the lists of reforms" (p. 144).

Hampel's conclusion from this historic review of educational changes is that "change will occur very tentatively as it has in the past. . ." (p. 154). He predicts there are to be "howls of protest from all the factions slighted by the 1980s emphasis on academic excellence" (p. 154).

During the same period that Sizer was chairing A Study of High Schools, John Goodlad (1984) was working on A Study of Schooling. In 1984, he prepared a report entitled *A Place Called School,* which provided insight regarding the behind the scenes investigation that had been conducted over several years. Chapter two of his report, entitled "We Want It All," identified the following set of goals which Goodlad recommended be used as "a beginning point in the dialogue about education and what schools are for" (p. 51). These goals were divided into four categories: (a) academic, embracing all intellectual skills and domains of knowledge; (b) vocational, geared to developing readiness for productive work and economic responsibility; (c) social and civic, related to preparing for socialization into a complex society; and (d) personal, emphasizing the development of individual responsibility, talent, and free expression. They are provided in complete detail below:

A. Academic Goals

1. Mastery of basic skills and fundamental processes
    - 1.1 Learn to read, write, and handle basic arithmetical operations.
    - 1.2 Learn to acquire ideas through reading and listening.
    - 1.3 Learn to communicate ideas through writing and speaking.
    - 1.4 Learn to utilize mathematical concepts.
    - 1.5 Develop the ability to utilize available sources of information.

2. Intellectual development

2.1 Develop the ability to think rationally, including problem-solving skills, application of principles of logic, and skill in using different modes of inquiry.

2.2 Develop the ability to use and evaluate knowledge, i.e., critical and independent thinking that enables one to make judgments and decisions in a wide variety of life roles—citizen, consumer, worker, etc.—as well as in intellectual activities.

2.3 Accumulate a general fund of knowledge, including information and concepts in mathematics, literature, natural science, and social science.

2.4 Develop positive attitudes toward intellectual activity, including curiosity and a desire for further learning.

2.5 Develop an understanding of change in society. (p. 51-52)

B. Vocational Goals

3. Career education—vocational education

3.1 Learn how to select an occupation that will be personally satisfying and suitable to one's skills and interests.

3.2 Learn to make decisions based on an awareness and knowledge of career options.

3.3 Develop salable skills and specialized knowledge that will prepare one to become economically independent.

3.4 Develop habits and attitudes, such as pride in good workmanship that will make one a productive participant in economic life.

3.5 Develop positive attitudes toward work, including acceptance of the necessity of making a living and an appreciation of the social value and dignity of work. (p. 52)

C. Social, Civic, and Cultural Goals

4. Interpersonal meaning

4.1 Develop a knowledge of opposing value systems and their influence on the individual and society.

4.2 Develop an understanding of how members of a family function under different family patterns as well as within one's own family.

4.3 Develop skill in communicating effectively in groups.

4.4 Develop the ability to identify with and advance the goals and concerns of others.

4.5 Learn to form productive and satisfying relations with others based on respect, trust, cooperation, consideration, and caring.

4.6 Develop a concern for humanity and an understanding of international relations.

4.7 Develop an understanding and appreciation of cultures different from one's own.

5. Citizenship participation

5.1 Develop historical perspective.

5.2 Develop knowledge of the basic workings of the government.

5.3 Develop a willingness to participate in the political life of the nation and the community.

5.4 Develop a commitment to the values of liberty, government by consent of the governed, representational government, and one's responsibility for the welfare of all.

5.5 Develop an understanding of the interrelationships among complex organizations and agencies in a modern society, and learn to act in accordance with it.

5.6 Exercise the democratic right to dissent in accordance with personal conscience.

5.7 Develop economic and consumer skills necessary for making informed choices that enhance one's quality of life.

5.8 Develop an understanding of the basic interdependence of the biological and physical resources of the environment.

5.9 Develop the ability to act in light of this understanding of interdependence.

6. Enculturation

6.1 Develop insight into the values and characteristics, including language of the civilization of which one is a member.

6.2 Develop an awareness and understanding of one's cultural heritage and become familiar with the achievements of the past that have inspired and influenced humanity.

6.3 Develop understanding of the manner in which traditions from the past are operative today and influence the direction and values of society.

6.4 Understand and adopt the norms, values, and traditions of the groups of which one is a member.

6.5 Learn how to apply the basic principles and concepts of the fine arts and humanities to the appreciation of the aesthetic contributions of other cultures.

7. Moral and ethical character

7.1 Develop the judgment to evaluate events and phenomena as good or evil.

7.2 Develop a commitment to truth and values.

7.3 Learn to utilize values in making choices.

7.4 Develop moral integrity.

7.5 Develop an understanding of the necessity for moral character.(p. 53-54)

D. Personal Goals

8. Emotional and physical well-being

8.1 Develop the willingness to receive emotional impressions and to expand one's affective sensitivity.

8.2 Develop the competence and skills for continuous adjustment and emotional stability, including coping with social change.

8.3 Develop a knowledge of one's own body and adopt health practices that support and sustain it, including avoiding the consumption of harmful or addictive substances.

8.4 Learn to use leisure time effectively.

8.5 Develop physical fitness and recreational skills.

8.6 Develop the ability to engage in constructive self-criticism.

9. Creativity and aesthetic expression
   - 9.1 Develop the ability to deal with problems in original ways.
   - 9.2 Develop the ability to be tolerant of new ideas.
   - 9.3 Develop the ability to be flexible and to consider different points of view.
   - 9.4 Develop the ability to experience and enjoy different forms of creative expression.
   - 9.5 Develop the ability to evaluate various forms of aesthetic expression.
   - 9.6 Develop the willingness and ability to communicate through creative work in an active way.
   - 9.7 Seek to contribute to cultural and social life through one's artistic, vocational and avocational interests.

10. Self-realization
   - 10.1 Learn to search for meaning in one's activities, and develop a philosophy of life.
   - 10.2 Develop the self-confidence necessary for knowing and confronting one's self.
   - 10.3 Learn to assess realistically and live with one's limitations and strengths.
   - 10.4 Recognize that one's self-concept is developed in interaction with other people.
   - 10.5 Develop skill in making decisions with purpose.
   - 10.6 Learn to plan and organize the environment in order to realize one's goals.
   - 10.7 Develop willingness to accept responsibility for one's own decisions and their consequences.
   - 10.8 Develop skill in selecting some personal, life-long learning goals and the means to attain them. (p. 55)

At about the same time that the above reports were being prepared, other authors were also reviewing education and recommending changes. Sewall (1983) addressed the educational system from the premise that it needs to be restored to what it once was. He criticized the curriculum and the educational philosophy of the early 1970s. His disapproval was reflected in the following statement about school missions, "A hundred

new pastoral and nonacademic school missions now seem to explain part of the nation's dwindling scholastic productivity" (p. 114). He believed the "more effective schools of tomorrow" must be based on the following "precepts of schooling" (p. 167):

1. "All students should receive instruction in academic subjects and thereby have the opportunity to develop their intellectual abilities to the fullest extent possible" (p. 167). The academic subjects provide "mental equipment," and "tools" for solving problems, being alert citizens and self-reliant workers.

2. "All courses of study and teaching methods should be subjected to rigorous critical examination to determine whether they promote intellect and self-discipline" (p. 170). Sewall believes that objectionable school practices arise from apathy toward general knowledge.

3. "Clear standards of performance should be set for all students, and those standards should govern the rate of student advancement" (p. 171). High standards must be established and maintained.

4. "Educators should hold high expectations for students of all backgrounds and capabilities" (p. 173).

5. "School personnel should be competent by education, training, and temperament to carry out their assigned responsibilities" (p. 174).

6. "Educators should resist efforts to increase school responsibility for the social and psychological welfare of students" (p. 177).

In addition, Sewall believed that students with "developed vocational interests" should place more "elective emphasis on the applied uses of academic knowledge" (p. 157). Cognitive skills and reasoning powers were identified as necessary skills for entry-level workers. His reform recommendations suggested that early "admission into community and technical colleges" (p. 157) would be appropriate for students with high vocational interests.

Boyer (1983) analyzed the American high school as an institution. He recommended several changes in the educational system, which included clarifying goals that focus on "the mastery of language, on a core of common learning, on preparation for work and further education, and on community and civic service" (p. 301). Like Goodlad, Boyer also included a chapter entitled "We Want It All." In this chapter, his discussion about the current purposes of education went beyond even the extensive listing that Goodlad had provided. Boyer stated, "Today's high school is called upon to provide services and transmit the values we used to expect from the community, the home and the church" (p. 57). Boyer criticized the "vague and wide-ranging mandates" (p. 58) for public education. He believed that they "trivialize the mission of public education" (p. 58). To rectify the situation, he stated a need for "clear and coherent vision of what the nation's high schools should be seeking to accomplish" (p. 67). He listed the following four essential goals for education:

1. "Help all students develop the capacity to think critically and communicate effectively through a mastery of language" (p. 66).

2. "Help all students learn about themselves, the human heritage, and the interdependent world in which they live through a core curriculum based upon consequential human experiences common to all people" (p. 67).

3. "Prepare all students for work and further education through a program of electives that develop individual aptitudes and interests" (p. 67).

4. "Help all students fulfill their social and civic obligations through school and community service" (p. 67).

A few years later, Walker and Soltis discussed, from an historical perspective, "three overarching educational tasks" (p. 73), which they later identified as the "three basic educational aims" (p. 73). According to the authors, these three aims—"to cultivate knowledge, to sustain and improve society, and to foster the well-being of individuals" (p. 73)—caused conflict between the "proponents of the different aims" (p. 72). The Walker and Soltis conception of education recognized that education is not "monolithic, but has room for some diversity and multiplicity as well as responsiveness to new conditions and

emerging social values" (p. 73). Therefore, they suggested that a balance be achieved between those aims and that each of those aims was a legitimate educational task.

They provided the following examples of aims of education that would achieve each of the above three tasks.

1. Cultivate knowledge (transmit it to a new generation)
   - Literacy
   - Command of basic skills
   - Mastery of basic facts and theories in fundamental subjects
   - Critical thinking
   - Problem solving
   - Good study skills and work habits
   - Desire to learn (p. 73-74)

2. To sustain and improve society (the social role of education)
   - Civic responsibility
   - Vocational preparation
   - Development of democratic attitudes
   - Health
   - Personal and social adjustment
   - Ethical values and behavior (p. 75)

3. To foster the well-being of individuals (personal fulfillment)
   - Self-realization
   - Self-esteem, emotional stability, and mental health
   - Creative expression
   - Cultivation of personal talents and interests
   - Wise use of leisure time
   - Preparation for the stresses of modern life
   - Health and safety (p. 76)

In 1987, E.D. Hirsch, Jr. focused on what he determined was the "great hidden problem in American education" (p. 1). He found that the students in the United States were not being taught a shared body of information, which they must have if they are to

communicate with one another. Because of this belief, he stated that the following educational goal—"mature literacy for all our citizens" (p. xiv)—was essential and basic to education. According to Hirsch, our schools have failed to provide this common body of knowledge, which he called cultural literacy, and he blamed that on "faulty theories promulgated in our schools of education and accepted by educational policy makers" (p. 110).

These theories included blaming society, teachers, and the system. He believed that those theories were faulty and the problem with the American school curriculum was that it was "fragmented" both "horizontally across subjects and vertically within subjects" (p. 116). His solution was to provide a two-part curriculum that he identified as the "extensive curriculum" and the "intensive curriculum."

The extensive curriculum contained the "traditional knowledge that literate Americans share—cultural literacy" (p. 127). However, he recognized that the extensive curriculum was not a "sufficient basis for education" (p. 128), therefore, he deduced that the intensive curriculum was also necessary. The intensive curriculum "encourages a fully developed understanding of a subject, making one's knowledge of it integrated and coherent" (p. 128). Hirsch stated that the intensive curriculum allowed students and teachers to "work intensively with materials that are appropriate for their diverse temperaments and aims" (p. 128). Hirsch warned repeatedly that the learning of a shared body of knowledge cannot be left to chance. It must be systematically taught if students are to be literate.

Adler (1982), in writing *The Paideia Proposal* on behalf of the members of the Paideia group, listed three main objectives for public schooling. According to the Paideia group, those objectives, identified simultaneously as common callings and goals, should be achieved by every student using a one-track educational system. The objectives were as follows:

- Preparation to go on learning, either at advanced levels of schooling, or in adult life, or both.

- "Adequate preparation for discharging the duties and responsibilities of citizenship" (p. 17) including "cultivation of the appropriate civic virtues" (p. 17) and an understanding of the government and its principles.

- Preparation for the "need to earn a living" (p. 17), not by training for a particular job, but by giving "basic skills that are common to all work in a society such as ours" (p. 17).

In order to achieve those goals, Adler reported that education must be "general and liberal," "nonspecialized," and "nonvocational" in the "sense that it does not narrowly prepare [students] for one or another particular job" (p. 18). The Paideia group recommended that every student follow the same "course of study" for twelve years. The only choice given to them would be the choice of a second language. The same course of study was defined by Adler in the following way:

- "Acquisition of organized knowledge by means of didactic instruction (teaching by telling), lectures and responses, textbooks, and other aids in the three areas of subject matter indispensable to basic schooling—1) language, literature and arts, 2) mathematics and natural sciences, and 3) history, geography and social studies" (p. 23).

- "Development of intellectual skills by means of coaching, exercises and supervised practice in the operations of reading, writing, speaking, listening, calculating, problem-solving, observing, measuring, estimating, and exercising critical judgment" (p. 23).

- "Enlarged understanding of ideas and values by means of maieutic or socratic questioning and active participation in the discussion of books (not textbooks) and other works of art and involvement in artistic activities such as music, drama and the visual arts" (p. 23).

All students, in addition to studying the above, needed physical education, health instruction, manual activities, such as "typing, cooking, sewing, wood- and metal-working, crafts using other materials, automobile driving and repair, maintenance of electrical and household equipment, and so on" (p. 33). Finally, Adler recommended that students be instructed in choosing and finding a career. Instruction in this area included introduction to various occupations and careers, "their significance and requirements and their rewards and opportunities" (p. 33). Although Adler commented that "our recommendation is not a monolithic program to be adopted uniformly everywhere" (p. 34), he did insist that all schools adopt the "central features of the model as an ideal to be realized in a variety of specifically different ways" (p. 34).

Oakes and Lipton (1990) voiced concern about the current factory model, traditional curriculum, and the behavioral objectives used to express the curriculum. They believed that learning is not a "tidy cause and effect equation" (p. 84) as suggested with the behavioral objective approach. They warned that "parents and policy makers should not confuse long lists of 'behavioral objectives' or scientific sounding 'diagnosis and prescription' methods with a rich curriculum" (p. 15). They recommended not only a curriculum that was rich in meaning, but one that could also be taught using a cognitive approach. This two-part, "curriculum rich in meaning" (p. 82) can be summarized as follows:

- The academics—a common curriculum, or knowledge all student should learn—organized around a cognitive rather than behavioral view of learning taught in multidimensional classrooms. This curriculum included the following knowledge that society believes all children need. Oakes and Lipton defined context as "essential ideas inextricably connected to a context that explains each idea and why it matters" (p. 96).

  "Language in its contexts" (p. 96): Use literature, drama, public speaking, recreational reading and research in connection with each other.

  "The Context of Other People's Language"

  "The Context of Mathematics" (p. 98): Apply math skills and ideas to real life and to other subjects such as science, art, social studies, language arts,

"Studying Society in Contexts" (p. 98): Do original research and reenact society's decision making and problem solving around critical social issues.

The other basics—described as "essential to our children and to our culture" (p. 109) include art and music, health and physical education, and work-related skills.

Oakes warned that although "concern about academics is warranted" (p. 110), what schools needed to do was combine the academics and the nonacademics "into a single priority" (p. 110). They reported art, music, health, physical education, and a whole array of subjects related to work easily engage students in active, real world problem solving. These subjects could quite naturally require students to discover and define problems and view them in sense-making contexts (p. 111).

Because, according to the authors, jobs will demand workers who apply basic knowledge and problem-solving strategies, the challenge schools will face is to "organize work-related education around meaningful knowledge" (p. 123). In fact, they surmised that the "time has come to rethink what vocational education should be and how it can best be delivered" (p. 125). They adamantly pronounced that vocational education must be reintegrated into the "mainstream of school curriculum" (p. 125) and recommended that "all students and all employers will be better served by an integrated view that combines work with the head and hands" (p. 125).

The previous lists of goals and aims of education provides ample material for thought and discussion. However, before identifying specific goals for an educational system, the advice given by Honig (1988), California State Superintendent of Public Instruction, should be considered. He made what he calls a "simple observation" about goals for schools. He said "any school system, no matter the size, must achieve its goals one student at a time. That is to say, when we discuss the purpose of the U.S. public schools, we are really talking about the effect we wish to have on the individual, multiplied several million times" (p. 27). He goes on to explain that each of us has three "discrete social identities: that of the worker, that of the citizen, and that of the private person" (p. 27). According to Honig, consideration of each of those identities points the way to what schools should accomplish.

Honig made the following comments about each identity and the schools responsibilities in helping students achieve success in those identities:

- A basic function of our school system is to prepare students to enter the world of work and earn a living (p. 27).

- Our citizenry must be educated because in a democracy people make the decisions (p. 32).

- Develop the potential skills, abilities, aptitudes, and talents of the student in order to encourage the full flowering of each child's humanity (p. 34).

Honig stated that these goals "are not in conflict as much as they are mutually reinforcing" (p. 37). He also cautioned that these goals are best obtained through a "traditional education," which he identified as follows:

- One which "leads the student through a rigorous curriculum in the academic disciplines" (p. 42). Honig's "irreducible core" included English, history, a foreign language, mathematics, science, the fine arts, and health and physical education" (p. 54).

- One which has "high expectations of all parties concerned—students, teachers, parents, and administrators—and holds them accountable" (p. 42).

Honig said the reason traditional education works is because "it stresses active language mastery, lays a broad foundation for learning" (p. 58) and engages the whole student. Honig used Hirsch's. research on reading and understanding to justify his position.

In addition to the traditional education, Honig acknowledged that "properly structured, vocational education has a helpful role to play in high school education" (p. 62). He did not view this role as one that prepared a student for a particular job. In his view, a traditional education is the best preparation for work—but, one that used *hands-on* applied courses to "reinforce the lessons from the academic curriculum" (p. 62).

In 1990, Richard Elmore edited *Restructuring Schools*, which was "designed to help policy makers, educators and researchers develop a deeper understanding of the issues of school restructuring" (p. xii). Several of the authors discussed the role of goals, missions, visions, and objectives as they presented school restructuring from several perspectives. Two of those authors, Mary Anne Raywid and Michael Cohen, provided advise for the development of school missions and goals.

Raywid's advice centered around restructuring as a fundamental change. Her discussion of the school mission stated that schools have two functions: (a) "to prepare the young to maintain and perpetuate intact our society, government, and economy" (p. 160), and (b) "to enable the young to realize their unique potential by developing their individual interests and talents" (p. 160). According to Raywid, the following concerns must be addressed during the development of a school mission: (a) students are not there by choice, (b) the mission must guide the students in "positive directions" (161), (c) students must be able to access the services, and (d) equity and equal opportunity must be considered. In addition, schools must shift their mission from "effective service delivery" to "successful learning" (p. 162).

Cohen, author of the chapter entitled "Key Issues Confronting State Policy makers," agreed in part with Mary Anne Raywid's assessment of school missions. He advised that "what students learn is at least partly a function of what schools are expected to teach them" (p. 260). He found that instructional goals were frequently set by the state and local school boards. His concern was that the goals frequently emphasized basic skills and failed to incorporate higher-order skills. He concluded that schools must establish goals that reflect "student acquisition of higher-order skills" (p. 258). He insisted that states "assume larger responsibilities for setting educational goals and defining standards for outcomes" (p. 276). He found that states either listed outcomes in a vague form with "prescriptions for youngsters to reach their full potential," or they provided "lengthy lists of instructional objectives reflecting subject matter course requirements" (p. 276). Cohen believed there was a middle ground.

Further insight can be gained from a recent book written by Roland Barth (1990), which dealt specifically with the teachers and principals who work in the schools. Barth indicated the need to develop a rich personal vision that operated as a guide for the educational program within the school. He reported that "researchers are finding a

consistent relationship between the presence of teachers' and principals' visions and the effectiveness of their schools" (p. 151). Barth defined a "personal vision" as one's overall conception of what the educator wants the organization to stand for; what its primary mission is; what its basic core values are; a sense of how all the parts fit together; and, above all, how the vision maker fits into the grand plan" (p. 148). Barth believed that currently our public schools are "working, but could work better" (p. 147). In fact, Barth would predict that schools need a vision if they are to improve and that teachers, principals and parents within the school must be the ones to develop the vision for the school.

Over the years, Barth has developed his "personal vision" of a good school. The vision, which he discusses in his book, contains the following elements:

1. 1. It is a "community of learners" (p. 161) - a place where everyone is teaching and learning simultaneously.

2. It is a collegial school - "everyone is a staff developer for everyone else" (p. 163).

3. Adults and students are encouraged to take risks. Students must be less docile, "and more inventive and adventuresome in their thinking" (p. 164).

4. It provides opportunities for "recommitment" (p. 166). Change and choice are evident.

5. It "offers great respect for difference among people" (p. 168).

6. It is a place for philosophers - teachers and students ask *why* (p. 169) questions.

7. There is a great deal of humor - "humor can be the glue that binds an assorted group of individuals into a community" (p. 170).

8. It is a "community of leaders" (p. 171) - students, teachers, counselors, everyone gets a chance to be a leader.

9. It is a place with low anxiety and high standards. According to Barth, research shows that "attention, learning, performance, retention and recall all diminish when

anxiety of the learner is high" (p. 172). Yet high standards frequently cause high anxiety. Teachers must maintain high standards with low anxiety to enhance learning. Barth believes the balance is critical.

Barth's personal vision is only provided so the reader can understand the elements of his particular vision. He strongly prescribed that each teacher and principal develop a unique personal vision. His conclusion voiced his concern that "a teacher or principal or professor" cannot be "a serious agent of change within a school, operating only from someone else's prescription or vision" (p. 178). He warned that implementing someone else's "ideas and ideals" is always a "halfhearted enterprise" (p. 178).

After reviewing the current literature on aims, goals, purposes, objectives, and outcomes of education and with Honig's observations and Barth's warnings firmly in mind, the design group turned to the final section of this report; developing aims, goals, requirements, outcomes, and objectives.

Developing Aims, Goals, Requirements, Outcomes, and Objectives

The following quote from Walker and Soltis (1986) characterizes the nature of goals in education:

> The history of American education hardly can be said to support any consensus on aims for education, unless it is the whole set of all aims ever seriously proposed. The fact is that no substantial agreement exists among philosophers, the public, or the profession on what should be the aims of a general education for all. (p. 69)

With the above comment in mind, how then do school districts reach a consensus on educational goals? Walker and Soltis's somewhat cynical response, "Lack of consensus and controversy over aims of education, having continued for centuries, are likely to be with us permanently" (p. 70) may indicate that the question hasn't been answered.

They discussed two methods they believe are currently being used to determine aims for education—the rational scientific method and the political method. The rational scientific method required a "cool, dispassionate objective approach" (p. 78); the political method suggested dialogue, struggle, and negotiation as the process of accommodation.

The first method was conducive to letting educators decide; the second might have resulted in a vote by all those affected by the goals, including parents, students, teachers, administrators, and citizens.

Because Walker and Soltis found a conflict between the two methods, and because they felt that "curriculum decisions should reflect both, yet the two do not always agree" (p. 79), they recommended a different form of decision-making—participative social planning. According to the authors, "participative social planning will have to be designed to enable both experts and the public to determine jointly, over an extended period of time, the shape of the educational programs and policies" (p. 79). Participative social planning requires a "carefully thought-out set of institutional arrangements" that merges "practical, political and technical-rational" methods of decision-making.

Sizer appears to agree with the Walker and Soltis solution for the development of goals. He believes schools must make many choices available to students, but only after they have first meet fundamental standards of literacy, numeracy, and civic understanding. In fact he states "the alternative—a course of study mandated as the result of decisions reached through special interest politics and unrelieved majority rule—is both insensitive educationally and unAmerican" (p. 111).

Goodlad provides added insights into the development of educational goals. He believes that when we develop educational goals, we should "address ourselves to such questions as the significance and meaning of those goals, whether they are comprehensive, implications for policy and practice, and whether or not we intend to use them for teaching and learning." The above directive was presented by Goodlad to guide school board members, parents, students, and teachers in their efforts to develop a goal-oriented educational system.

Finally, Barth provides the following look at educational goals. First he reminds us that states must assume responsibility for setting goals. Second, the district must establish goals that are consistent with state goals and, finally, "schools must be responsible for establishing annual goals within the context of district goals" (p. 267). In order to do that, Barth recommends that "school districts need to establish school level governance organizations, such as a school council composed of teachers, administrators, parents and community members" (p. 268).

In conclusion, this report provides the following overviews, thoughts, and insights regarding the development and implementation of learner outcomes. These statements both summarize the material in the report and provide direction for those who wish to identify learner outcomes for their schools.

- Throughout the literature and over the past several years, educators and researchers have identified, both through research and through observation and analysis of educational systems, a myriad of aims, purposes, goals, objectives, and outcomes for education.

- Terms like aims purposes, and goals have defined and explained the role of the educational system. Terms like objectives and outcomes have been used to identify what the student is expected to achieve.

- The search for aims, purposes, goals, objectives and outcomes can be defined as an ill-structured problem—one which does not have one absolutely correct solution.

- Currently, most authors believe that district goals do not have an impact on education within the district. Vague, unclear, poorly written goals and objectives are ignored by teachers, principals, and students.

- The goals and objectives for education change as the needs of society change. As Dewey stated, "a given generation tends to emphasize in its conscious projections just those things it has least of in actual fact."

- Educational goals, as currently written, range from very specific objectives to very general aims. They both compliment and contradict one another.

- Only when the goals and objectives are integrated, are they consistent with one another.

- Goals have changed little over the past one hundred years. For the most part, according to Goodlad, the goals and objectives that have been identified can be divided into the following categories: academic; vocational; social, civic, and cultural; and personal.

- Currently, educators are being challenged to provide direction for improving the educational system in the United States. Establishing appropriate objectives and outcomes for students is an important part of the process.

- In addition to discussing the importance of developing goals and objectives for learning, authors have discussed the importance of the role of the educator in helping students achieve those goals and objectives.

- The establishment of goals and objectives is both a rational and a political process. Participative social planning may allow this process to be implemented.

- Questions to consider during the development of goals and objectives include:

  What is the meaning and the significance of the goals and/or objectives?
  What are the implications for policy and practice?
  Do we intend to use them for teaching and learning?

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